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JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

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Volume XVII

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JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

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Policies and Pleas

EDITORIAL

PERENNIAL readers of the *Junior College Journal* will not need to be reminded that this issue is the second to appear under the new arrangement for editing and publication. Two issues may be too few through which to demonstrate in full any formulation of editorial policies, but these policies should at least begin to be manifest. In view of the importance of having readers aware of these policies, it seems desirable to restate in brief the bases of most of the policies approved by the Editorial Board. These bases emerged from a poll in May of junior-college administrators, extensive report on which was made in our September issue.

1. Respondents to the poll were overwhelmingly favorable to continuance of the editorial section. They wished to have the editorials written primarily, but not exclusively, by the editor, and they preferred that invited writers of editorials be members of the Editorial Board or "other persons conversant with the junior college."

2. Respondents were not far from equally divided on the question of

having the articles primarily addressed to teaching faculties or administrators, although there was some degree of preference among these administrators for articles significant for the teacher. Given a wide choice as to *areas* to be stressed in articles, they showed no exclusive preference for any area, and it is correct to infer that, to meet the wishes of respondents, the coverage of articles should be comprehensive of all important aspects of junior-college education. As to the *nature* of articles, there was some preference for expositions of significant developments in individual junior colleges, but discussional treatments of important issues and interpretative reports of significant researches also were indicated as desirable content.

3. It was clear from the poll that respondents wanted the *Junior College Journal* to carry, in addition to the kind of news represented in the extended expositions of significant developments in individual junior colleges just mentioned, news summarized from the *Washington Newsletter* and brief items from

individual junior colleges and concerning personalities. Accordingly, the reader will find these, as well as items concerning regional and state associations in the departments designated "The Junior College World" and "From the Executive Secretary's Desk," content for both of which is contributed by the Washington office of the Association.

4. The poll disclosed a strong preference for book reviews by persons selected and invited by the editor for their special competence in the areas represented.

5. Given the option of a bibliographical service that would be comprehensive (in the sense that all published materials dealing with the junior college would be cited and briefly annotated) or selective (with longer annotations to give more idea of the content and nature of each item), respondents indicated an unequivocal preference for selected references.

The Editorial Board, at its Chicago meeting in July, as the reader may verify by reference to the report of its actions in the September issue of this journal, approved elements of policy emanating from the preferences disclosed by the poll. Thus policies for this periodical, as

is appropriate for the organ of an association, are grounded in the wishes of the membership. In addition, the Board formulated certain policies concerning its peculiar function. These may be generalized as a pledge to represent the interests of this organ before regional and state meetings and with individual junior-college workers and to be on the lookout for significant manuscripts.

This sketch of policies is concluded by an appeal to junior-college teachers and administrators for co-operation in putting them into effect and in modifying these policies as experience with them may recommend. One avenue of co-operation is that of writing to, or talking with, the editors or members of the Editorial Board whenever comments or suggestions concerning the conduct or content of the *Junior College Journal* come to mind. Another avenue is that of aiding the editors in having at hand an ample supply of manuscripts from which to select by making a record for publication of significant things that you are doing in the junior-college field and by urging others at work in junior colleges to do the same.

LEONARD V. KOOS

Patterns of General Education

B. LAMAR JOHNSON

IT is clear that during the next decade the junior college will expand with almost explosive rapidity. New junior colleges will open their doors in all sections of the country, and junior-college enrollments will multiply.

As new junior colleges are founded and as established institutions re-examine their programs in the light of changing conditions, faculties inevitably raise such questions as: "What experiences do we want our students to have?" "What type of curriculum shall we adopt?" "What courses should we teach?"

The answers to these questions obviously depend on a variety of factors, which differ from community to community and from institution to institution: the character of the youth to be served, the needs of the community, the philosophy of the college, and even the finan-

cial resources and equipment available.

Despite the differences in institutions, however, there is one factor which all will need to recognize. It is this: No matter whether a student is a terminal or a college-preparatory student, he needs a general education. Regardless of whether he is going to be a lawyer or a filling-station operator, a librarian or a secretary, he will be a citizen. He will need the type of training that will make him a better citizen, a more effective member of the family circle. He needs a general education, an "education for the common life." There is among educators general agreement about the objectives of general education, about the type of citizen we want trained in our schools and colleges. There is, however, a wide divergence of opinion about the best means of achieving these objectives. These disagreements, these controversies must be considered by every junior-college faculty in planning its curriculum.

It is the purpose of this paper to identify and to describe briefly five approaches to general education which are today being defended and used in American education.

This summarizing description of general education in American colleges was prepared at the suggestion of the Committee on Curriculum and Adult Education by B. LAMAR JOHNSON, dean of instruction and librarian at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri.

Typical Approaches to General Education

GREAT BOOKS.—One approach to general education about which the junior-college faculty will wish to be informed is the "great-books approach," which is advocated by such men as Hutchins, Barr, Van Doren, Foerster, and Adler.

We have then for general education a course of study consisting of the greatest books of the Western World and the arts of reading, writing, thinking, and speaking, together with mathematics, the best exemplar of the processes of human reason. If our hope has been to frame a curriculum which educes the elements of our common human nature, this program should realize our hope. If we wish to prepare the young for intelligent action, this course of study should assist us; for they will have learned what has been done in the past and what the greatest men have thought. They will have learned how to think themselves. If we wish to lay a basis for advanced study, that basis is provided. If we wish to secure true universities, we may look forward to them, because students and professors may acquire through this course of study a common stock of ideas and common methods of dealing with them. All the needs of general education in America seem to be satisfied by this curriculum [4: 85].

The great-books approach to general education not only emphasizes intellectual goals and achievements, but specifically omits nonintellectual goals. "We have excluded body building and character building. We have excluded the social graces

and the tricks of trades" (4: 77). Hutchins and his followers hold (1) that the training of the intellect is the one primary goal of general education, for, if the intellect is trained, all things else will care for themselves; and (2) that study of the great books is the best way to develop and cultivate the intellect.

The one college in America which comes closest to adopting the plan recommended by Hutchins is St. John's College in Maryland under the leadership of Stringfellow Barr.

Everyone at St. John's takes the same program; no choice of electives is permitted. Half of the books, covering about two thousand years of culture, are explored in the first two years; the other half, comprising three hundred years of history, are taken up the last two years. The first year is devoted to the Greeks and their special understanding of the liberal arts, with the reading of such books as Plato's *Republic* in Greek and Euclid's *Elements*. The second year consists of reading books most of which were originally written in Latin, such as Virgil and St. Thomas' *Treatise on Law* (in both Latin and English). The third and fourth years introduce the students to books in the Romance languages and German, respectively, and also to books in English. Representative works are, in the third year, Rousseau's *Social Contract* and Pascal's *Pensées* (in French and English) and, in the fourth year, Kant, Hegel, and Marx (in German and English) [1: 72].

Although Hutchins and his followers contend that "general education is for everyone," the type of

student for whom the great-books approach seems best adapted is the student of superior academic ability. It is with this intellectual aristocracy in mind that Benjamin Fine refers to the great-books school of education as the "aristocratic wing."

LIBERAL ARTS.—Taking sharp issue with the great-books approach to general education are those who defend, by word and by practice, the liberal arts approach. Under the proposals made by this group—proposals typically followed by the liberal arts colleges of the country—students are required to take a course in English composition and one or more courses selected from each of the major fields of the curriculum: science, history and social studies, foreign language, and the humanities.

Each of the major liberal disciplines [mathematics, the natural sciences, the social studies, and the humanities] has an essential contribution to make, but . . . none is of such a character and importance as to justify exclusive emphasis upon it at the expense of the others. Each will be found to have its own distinctive values and limitations; none can be ignored with impunity, and none should be allowed to monopolize the attention of the student [7: 45].

An ideal curriculum will include all the major liberal arts and sciences. . . . Whether or not it is organized according to divisions, it will introduce the student to each of the major disciplines, so that no essential aspect of his cultural heritage is neglected [7: 119].

Proponents of the liberal arts approach hold that providing the student with a sampling of knowledge and with an understanding of methods of work in the various fields of learning will develop in the student insights, attitudes, habits, and skills which he will utilize in making decisions and in carrying on the activities of day-by-day living. In short, the contention is that the liberal arts approach will best educate for the common life.

This pattern of general education is ordinarily followed in the colleges of America; it is likewise the pattern typically followed in junior colleges which have college-preparatory curriculums.

SURVEY OF FIELDS OF KNOWLEDGE.—In contrast to the "sampling in isolated courses" advocated in the liberal arts pattern is the "survey-of-fields-of-knowledge" approach to general education. In colleges which accept this particular pattern of general education, the student is typically required to take a survey course in each of the major fields of the curriculum, these in addition to selected electives in fields of his choice. Proponents of this approach to general education hold that the liberal arts approach accepts a compartmentalized sampling technique which breaks down unity in the thinking and understanding of the student. They suggest that the survey approach encourages students to see the relationship between

fields of learning and provides them with a foundation on which to develop the understandings and insights essential in everyday living.

In referring to the development of survey courses at Pasadena Junior College, John W. Harbeson comments as follows:

The general introductory or survey course has been introduced as the result of a felt need. . . .

No person can lay claim to a liberal education who has had not even a vista over the great intellectual expanses which constitute the major subjects of the college curriculum. Yet time does not permit taking the subjects. The answer to the dilemma is the survey which in a single course gives to the student a reasonable although hasty overview and familiarity with all subjects in a major field. It is apparent that the purposes of general education do not require the detailed mastery required in a subject-matter course. It is sufficient to know the general nature of the content, significant problems of the field, outstanding authorities, and ways in which a particular subject has contributed to a rich life in the world today. Under such an organization of the curriculum from four to six general introductory courses, followed by more intensive excursions into subject-matter courses, will make it possible to complete the college program in a four-year period and at the same time supply a reasonable degree of familiarity with the phenomena of the world and the universe. The general purpose of the survey is to provide *understandings*; that of the subsequent study of subject-matter segments is to develop scholarship [9: 192-93].

Representative of the survey-

course pattern is the curriculum of the College of the University of Chicago, where survey courses are offered in the physical sciences, the biological sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities. Columbia College, the General College at the University of Florida, Colgate University, and the Chicago City Junior College likewise offer survey courses.

INDIVIDUAL PROGRAM.—A fourth approach to general education is the individualized approach of the so-called "progressive colleges."

The progressive college programs require no official introduction to overall bodies of fact or ideas. They stress the qualitative and unique nature of individual growth. The implications in this, they believe, call for a tailor-made curriculum and large-scale student responsibility. . . . Not only is the student's program allowed at college entrance to concentrate in chosen areas (with, again, various formal and informal administrative checks), but, in large degree, *the core of what the individual student studies is not "courses," but whatever he and his adviser construct it to be.* It is, therefore, in part at least, a system of tutorials, in which the tutorials become, not aids to course-work, but substitutes for the courses themselves. . . .

Regulation and evaluation are done largely by the adviser and various faculty committees constituted for this purpose. "Grades," in the conventional sense, do not exist. Examinations are given only when in the individual case it appears useful [to give them] [12: 47-48].

Unity in the curriculum is not

found in any new subject-matter organization. Rather it is found in the unity of the motivation of each student—a motivation based on his individual purposes, needs, and interests.

Supporters of the individualized approach assert that the goal of general education—preparation for the common life—can best be attained when students work on materials and problems which they individually accept as significant. By learning how to analyze and work on problems, by making plans and decisions, and by accepting responsibility, the student is best preparing himself for the common life.

For the most part, colleges committed to the individualized approach include a small group of private colleges: Bennington, Bard, and Sarah Lawrence.

FUNCTIONAL SUBJECT MATTER.—A fifth approach to general education is through courses and experiences based directly on life-needs of students and on the demands of the society in which they are going to live.

In referring to this approach to general education, John Dale Russell states:

The organization of knowledge into the recognized and traditional fields of subject matter has apparently been a natural outcome of the work of scholars and investigators. Attention has repeatedly been called in recent times to the fact that in the practical situations faced by persons in daily life, problems

are not often pigeon-holed in these traditional subject-matter fields, such as algebra, American history, economics, or psychology. The attempt to organize the presentation to the student around "problem areas," or functions, instead of in terms of the traditional subject-matter fields is perhaps the most radical step since the original formulation of the seven liberal arts in the days of ancient Rome [2: 186-87].

Proponents of this approach point out that the findings of psychology and the subjective observation of intelligent persons unite in agreeing that automatic transfer of training does not take place. They point out that the artist who understands and demonstrates the principles of color, line, and balance on canvas does not consistently demonstrate the same understanding in the selection and care of his own clothes or even in the furnishing of his home; that the scholar whose understanding of scientific principles cannot be questioned in the laboratory does not exhibit these same principles and attitudes at the polls on election day. Transfer, they hold, cannot be assumed; it must be taught. With this in mind, the proponent of functional education aims to identify the life-needs of the student and of the society in which he will live and then to plan a program of instruction designed specifically to meet these needs. The resulting course of study typically has a pattern of courses quite different from that of the usual college curriculum; for

it includes such courses as marriage and the family, citizenship, communications, philosophy of life, vocational orientation, personal and community health, and consumer problems.

Representative of colleges which have based their curriculum on this philosophy are Stephens College and the General College of the University of Minnesota.

Summary and Implications

The writer recognizes that, for the purpose of this presentation, he may have oversimplified patterns of general education. It is clear, for example, that many colleges do not adhere to any one of the five patterns which have been identified but rather to a combination of two or more patterns. A number of colleges, for example, introduce into what is otherwise a typical liberal arts curriculum one or more courses of the functional type, such as marriage and the family, communications, and mental hygiene. Likewise, some colleges committed to the individual or to the functional approach offer survey courses.

In presenting these five approaches to general education, the writer has aimed, up to this point, simply to describe different patterns of general education. He cannot, however, close this article without suggesting his own interpretation of what is happening and of the direction in which the junior-college

curriculum should, in his judgment, move.

It is clear that, as the junior college expands, it can, must, and will open its doors to masses of American youth—youth of all ranges and types of ability, interests, and needs. The variety in junior-college population, in the judgment of the writer, argues for the individual approach in so far as method is concerned. Examination of instructional costs in colleges using the individual approach (in its more comprehensive sense) suggests, however, that such costs are likely to prove prohibitive for public education. Although we cannot look for widespread adoption of a completely individualized (or tutorial) approach in the junior colleges, we can hope and expect that the philosophy of individualization will influence the curriculum, the methods of teaching, and the counseling program.

In the writer's opinion, the great-books and the liberal arts approaches represent patterns which are proving themselves best adapted to highly selected student bodies; they are not planned for meeting the needs of the mass of American youth.

The survey-of-knowledge pattern represents a desirable step from departmental isolation to increased unity in living and study. It is likely that this pattern will remain a continuing part of college curriculums,

no matter what other approaches may also be used.

It is clear to the writer, however, that the junior-college curriculum should move in the direction of the functional subject matter approach, with subject matter selected and courses planned on the basis of life-needs of the American citizen, instruction offered and counseling provided on the basis of individual student needs and interests. This approach demands a dynamic curriculum—a curriculum re-examined and revised on the basis of continuing research, study, and observation.

Such an approach to general education can be planned to meet the needs of all students, terminal as well as college-preparatory; for such a pattern is projected in terms of *common life needs*. In addition, research studies have consistently shown that students educated under this plan are effectively prepared for advanced work in the senior college or professional school.

The American junior college is facing its greatest opportunity and also its greatest responsibility. Increasing numbers of youth are demanding, and will continue to demand, a post-high-school education. It is at this point that society places great hope in, and heavy responsibility on, the junior college.

By and large, junior colleges are becoming aware of this demand and of their obligations. Every junior-

college faculty must, however, look well to its methods and its procedures and evaluate its results in terms of its ideals, the needs of youth, and the demands of society.

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A Map Project for the Junior College

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON

ONE of the major obligations assumed by most junior colleges has been to widen the intellectual horizon of its student body—to bring the students into a more vital relation with world culture and to encourage a world point of view. There is a strong feeling on the part of junior-college administrative and teaching staffs that the students should be made aware, as never before, of man's political, economic, and social achievements and his progress in literature and the fine arts. There would seem to be pretty general agreement as to the framework of such a program but a wide divergence as to the details and the manner in which the desired results may be attained. It is not the purpose of the writer to present the various possibilities or the wide divergence of practice in this connection. It would appear to be a much neglected area so far as the junior-college years are concerned.

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON is instructor in social studies at Cazenovia Junior College, New York, and professor emeritus of social studies at New York University.

Aim of Social Sciences in the Junior College

Whatever is planned or attempted must be closer in method to the high school than to the senior college. Each student must be afforded an opportunity actually to "practice" what is being "preached." Much individual work must be done if the true aims of the junior college are to be realized. The telling process, so characteristic of the lecture method, must yield to practices more akin to those of the secondary-school classroom if the real purpose of such a course is to be attained. The final result should be something more than a mere awareness of a geographically far-reaching cultural environment surrounding the individual. It must involve an ability on the part of the student to orient himself to that culture, not in the terms of the professor with many years of living and of study behind him, but in his own terms. Opportunity must be afforded for an individual contact with, and appraisal of, this great body of knowledge.

We admit the difficulties involved and the disappointments attendant on such an effort, but it is only on

such a basis that we can justify our attempts to bring about a far-reaching, comprehensive grasp of the contemporary world. The discovery of such an environment on the part of the student and the consequent awakening of intellectual interest in the environment, even to the point of reacting to it, is a most rewarding experience from the standpoint of both student and instructor. It is something which the ordinary college examination will not reveal; the evidence of its lodgment is but imperfectly revealed through ordinary testing programs.

One phase of such a program has thus far been but vaguely hinted at, namely, the dawning consciousness of the existence of various lands and peoples, the setting for such cultural attainment and diversities as are revealed on the contemporary scene. It is just this stage setting, with all that it involves of costumes and "props," that is usually neglected, and this neglect too often extends to the preparation of the student in the high-school years. Much of it is probably due to an inadequate concept of geography, which up to college years continues to be too much concerned with place locations and products. Geographical relationships either have never been established in the student's mind or have been so imperfectly realized as to serve little purpose. Thus the global concept of

our present-day world, which has been brought home to us by a world cataclysm rather than through classroom contacts with the map, has come almost with a shock to present-day Americans. Maps have been devised to emphasize these relationships for those who have not been brought into realistic contact with them, as were so many of our soldiers, sailors, and aviators in the recent war.

Thus far it has been assumed that an understanding of the contemporary world is a major objective, if not the principal objective, sought in the social sciences at the junior-college level. How this purpose may be effected in these two years with a perspective as far-reaching as Greece and Rome, in the time ordinarily set aside for such a program, is difficult to conceive, much as this long view of man's background has to commend it.

The Cazenovia Program

At Cazenovia Junior College we have accepted a shorter perspective—one which in the eyes of many social-science teachers may seem to be too limited. Three periods a week are allotted over the two years to the geography, history, government, and economic considerations involved, and separate courses are provided in the "humanities," that is, the literary and artistic elements involved—courses which it is hoped

may in the near future be more closely interwoven and integrated (if this much abused term may be used). The perspective attempted in history is that of the period since World War I, with its background of causes and conditions explanatory of this initial world upheaval of our times. Comparatively few of the books covering this time span are suitable for junior-college use, but it is to be hoped that the future will bring a wider and better selection. This constitutes the work of the Freshman year, and it is followed in the Sophomore year by an emphasis on the American cultural scene, with a time span of about the same length, namely, from the close of the Civil War to the present, with the turn of the century and the outbreak of World War I regarded as important focal points.

The present Cazenovia course has been described in some detail to make clear the role of the map and the geographical element in the course. One other phase of the work which has not been mentioned is the regular use of *Time* magazine as a basis for coming into contact with the changing contemporary scene. One period a week is devoted to the contents of this magazine, and its relation to the map will appear presently. This blueprint of the Cazenovia program in the social sciences is not presented as the ultimate of what such a course should be. Our program will undoubtedly

be subjected to many modifications as time passes and more experience is gained. It certainly should be linked up as closely as possible with the study of the humanities. With the instructional emphases accepted for these two years, the informational framework may be much modified, but the present instructional emphases will undoubtedly continue, whatever changes may be made in content. It is to this emphasis that we would direct special attention in connection with the place and the use of the map.

Map Aspect of the Program

In the Cazenovia program the basal textbook has been at various times Langsam's *The World since 1914, This Age of Conflict* by Chambers and others, Hall's *World Wars and Revolutions*, and Wallbank and Taylor's *The World in Turmoil, 1914-1944*. For the geography involved, these have been supplemented by Newbigin's *A New Regional Geography of the World* and Raisz's *Atlas of Global Geography*. Owing to the limitations set by their treatments, greater dependence has been placed on various wall maps, the maps appearing in *Time* and *Life*, and a series of map exercises devised by the instructor. These last are not so numerous or inclusive as they should be if this environmental aspect is to be adequately realized. Again, in the wall maps in the various series now

available, there are serious omissions covering recent developments which will undoubtedly soon be met by the publishers. The writer is now at work on additions to the series published by A. J. Nystrom and Company, of which he was one of the original editors back in the 1920's. This series has served as the mainstay of the work in the Freshman year. What is greatly needed is a textbook on the order of Fairgrieve's *Geography and World Power* but a much more detailed treatment and one emphasizing modern conditions. Bowman's book on *The New World*, which appeared just at the close of the first World War but has never been revised or brought up to date, is a treatment of the same general nature and may still serve as a partial guide for the teacher. The same holds true for a much later publication but one within still narrower limits, as its title indicates, Simonds and Emeny's *The Great Powers in World Politics: International Relations and Economic Nationalism*. Bowman's book was rather widely used in training programs in the recent war, as were the various books on geopolitics. Mention is made of these publications since it would seem desirable in the junior-college years to proceed along similar lines.

The general purpose to be served by the study of books and maps is to emphasize the geographical unity

presented by our present-day world (so admirably expressed by Willkie's concept of "One World") and the various physical forces and conditions that are characteristic of certain areas, serving often as important factors in shaping and conditioning the political entities involved. The instructor must emphasize those elements of mountain, plain, and natural resources which enter into and condition the living of various peoples if he would create an attitude of understanding and appreciation of their cultural problems and their role among the nations. Time does not permit much more than the laying of the groundwork for this understanding, but a valuable contribution is possible if it be only to implant the seed of that tolerance so much demanded in these postwar years.

Nature of the Class Assignment

An initial exercise toward our desired goal would be a "world tour" as of 1939 or 1933, in which the various major political divisions of the world at that date are recognized, their relation one to the other, the areas involved, and the major physical features characteristic of each. Some such over-all portrayal of the various continents should be attempted as is to be found in Newbigin, concentrating, as the Cazenovia program indicates, on Eurasia; for we are somewhat bound here by the historical

aspect of our program, which centers in the two World Wars. As the first of these wars was European in origin and the major changes involved European states and their outlying territories, this bird's-eye view stresses the European scene.

Such a survey, limited though it be by the time available to give to it, provides a significant background for a series of exercises in connection with the study of current happenings. Each week, on the day set aside for such study, each student submits a world map based on the current issue of *Time* and picturing the world situation as of that date. She carefully peruses the magazine for all centers of interest and the developments associated with them and then proceeds to "highlight" her outline map, locating carefully the areas or cities where things are happening and giving prominence in some fashion, by lettering, underscoring, starring, or using some other scheme, the more important regions or places involved. If relationships between these apparently isolated points are revealed in the existing situation, these are shown, as for example, the parties to the Big Four Conference, or the association of an Atlee (England) and a Truman (United States) with a development involving Palestine. Domestic happenings are by no means ignored, and these may seem at times to overtop foreign affairs.

Essentially, the student is called on to give her individual reaction to the total scene as presented by the week's news. No evidence for the student's map picture need be indicated on the map itself, but the student must be ready to supply this in a discussion of her results. She is asked to supply on her map as intelligible a result of her study as possible with the aid of symbols and brief explanations. Effective results are often secured through the use of color. Wherever particular countries are involved in the happenings recorded, the student is urged to fix their boundaries on the map, especially if these involve physical features such as rivers or mountains.

The initial "world tour" is of great value in this study because of the desirable orientation provided, especially if it has impressed the student with the significant geographical divisions. The maps in Raisz's atlas may also prove useful in presenting such a picture, from the standpoint both of grasping these major divisions and of noting the effective methods employed by the map-maker for presenting vital data. Maps in *Life* and *Time* are also suggestive in this regard. In fact, one of the purposes throughout this map study is to make the student map-conscious and to show her how much there may be of interest in a map representation of a cultural phase of world develop-

ment. A bulletin-board presentation of the best work is helpful in setting standards and in revealing possibilities to the less imaginative members of the group.

One characteristic of all this study and map-making to which we would draw special attention is its demand for a certain amount of originality on the part of the student. Perhaps "originality" is too strong a word. The point is that the project does not involve merely copying something already carefully worked out by others. The details may be copied, but the exercise as a whole is the student's own, for it requires critical thinking and planning, emphasizing constantly methods and procedures and their relation to desired results.

It will be noted that this type of map work and the results called for are akin to the use of the outline map in high school. The weakness of much of the work done at that level is illustrated by the service rendered by a publishing house which supplies each week a large map, bulletin-board size, on which all the happenings and developments of the week are noted. These maps are accompanied by pictures and cartoons and elaborate legends. These are widely used as a basis for study. Such a ready-made map may well serve as a pattern to stimulate the ambitious student, but the most valuable instructional results come when the student

works out such a project for himself. As a finished product, such a prepared map violates altogether the principle of good teaching that the student be challenged to do his own thinking and make his own selection of data.

Use of the Wall Map

It is difficult to conceive how any real understanding of the political side of the two world wars, the intervening peace interval, and the postwar period may be obtained without a study of the map. As Cressey has pointed out in his book, *The Basis of Soviet Strength*, the geography of Soviet Russia presents many a key to an understanding of Russia's present position and policies. Therefore, either through well-defined exercises or the study of the wall map in the classroom, with a rigorous checking for grasp and understanding, the student's attention must be directed to the geographical factors, always bearing in mind their relationships to the political, economic, and social phases of the situation. The black-board map is particularly useful in checking the student's knowledge. In the writer's classroom there are two permanent maps on the black-board, one of the world and the other of Europe. Such maps can be readily prepared by the instructor. One easy way to do this is to project a map slide on the board and to trace it. Then the map is always

there, and a student can be called up at a moment's notice to check a point in question.

One of the most useful maps for driving home the geographical factor is a map in the Nystrom series showing on the same sheet a physical map of Europe, a map of density of population, a map of land utilization, and an industrial map. These aspects of continents and countries are basal to an understanding of their place in the world. Raisz in his atlas combines many of these phases and presents the results in a most interesting fashion. He still further emphasizes the importance of the geographical factor as it throws light on social and economic problems and suggests to the instructor many exercises and problems. The "distribution" maps, a constantly increasing number of which have appeared in recent years covering almost every aspect of human living, have much to contribute to a real appreciation of man in his relation to his environment and to his fellow-man.

Little has been said here of the utilization of the historical map, with its emphasis on change and the time factor. This, too, has a contribution to make and a role to play in revealing what lies behind the contemporary scene. The movements of peoples, the changes following wars, and the expansion of trading activities which have marked the passing years—all

should have their place in an adequate presentation at the junior-college level. The problem is where to draw the line between the various contributions to the student's grasp of the situation as between those arising essentially out of the activities of the past or those due to physical and environmental influences, such as the characteristics of land and soil. This problem, however, is the major difficulty of any social-science course where the attempt is made to bring history, geography, economics, and political science into a meaningful relationship for the student. The map becomes a major consideration in any such attempt if we would realize the purposes which such a program must serve.

Enough has been said to reveal the nature of the work attempted at Cazenovia Junior College. It would appear that the map itself, as the instructor tries to make it "come alive," becomes the real core of the work, especially throughout the Freshman year.

Work of the Sophomore Year

The Sophomore year, centering as it does in the American scene, does not involve so much map study. As the student approaches the 1930's and 1940's, United States culture and development begin to hinge more and more on world happenings. It is assumed that the work of the Freshman year will

serve more or less as a basis for the more restricted program followed in the second year. Much will depend here on the emphases planned by the instructor. Little attention is devoted to the United States as a political entity during the Freshman year. In the Sophomore year the United States must be conceived and presented as an emerging major power and a significant cultural entity among the other powers.

The desirability of clarifying our strictly American heritage and of indicating just how far we have been shaped by the past in our present-day outlook will necessarily cut down considerably the time available for developing the One World idea. There is such a shocking ignorance of our democratic bases and practices and their grounding in the period since the Civil War that the presentation of our relations to the rest of the world, geographically and culturally, are likely to suffer, essential as they are to our understanding and closely intertwined though they be, the one with the other. What we as a people have to give to the world and what we should struggle to preserve of our heritage out of the past are important considerations which cannot well be neglected. It is to be hoped that, as the role of the junior college is better defined and as the function of the secondary school in this long-range program is better understood, more effective instruc-

tion and a better apportionment of what is undoubtedly their joint task will follow.

Books Mentioned

- BOWMAN, ISAIAH. *The New World: Problems in Political Geography*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1921.
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- CRESSEY, GEORGE BABCOCK. *The Basis of Soviet Strength*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1945.
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- HALL, WALTER PHELPS. *World Wars and Revolutions: The Course of Europe since 1910*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1943.
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- RAISZ, ERWIN JOSEPHUS. *Atlas of Global Geography*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944.
- SIMONDS, FRANK HERBERT, and EMENY, BROOKS. *The Great Powers in World Politics: International Relations and Economic Nationalism*. New York: American Book Co., 1937.
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Research Preferred for Junior Colleges

LEONARD V. KOOS

THE Co-ordinating and Research Committee, at the meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges held in January of this year, authorized a poll of administrators on the research that they would prefer to have made and encouraged by the Association. The plan of consulting all administrators was in harmony with a general policy of co-operative activity and decentralization agreed on at the conference of officers and committee members of the Association held in July of last year and reaffirmed by the Association in January.

The Poll

The poll was secured on a six-page schedule distributed in May of this year to all junior colleges of the country. This schedule was compiled with the help of the chairmen of the Association's Research and Service Committees, namely, the Committees on Legislation, Administrative Problems, Teacher Preparation, Student Personnel Problems, and Curriculum and Adult Education. These chairmen

*This report was prepared by
LEONARD V. KOOS as director of
research for the American Association
of Junior Colleges.*

contributed most of the lines of inquiry included. In consequence, the schedule contained sections representative of the areas of activity of these committees. The five areas are almost, even if not fully, comprehensive of the field of the junior college.

The total number of junior colleges, preferences of which are represented in the following tabulations, is 173. This number is slightly larger than that represented in the poll on editorial policies, on which report was made in the September issue of the *Junior College Journal*. The schedules for the two polls (on preferred research and editorial policies) were sent out to all junior colleges of the country at the same time, and this fact may have accounted for the modest proportion of returns. However, the proportion was mainly due to the fact that the schedules were sent out late in the school year. As stated in the report on the poll on editorial policies, it is doubtful that a larger proportionate return would have changed materially the preferences emerging from this inquiry.

Of the 173 institutions represented, 123 are large and 50 are small, an enrolment of 300 students being used as the dividing line be-

tween the two groups. Again, of the whole number, 69 are private and 104 are public. Because no notable differences in preferences emerged between small and large junior colleges, no special reference is made to them in the following report. At a few points important differences in preferences between private and public institutions appeared, and these will be shown in the tables and noted in the interpretation.

Preferences on Legislation

AT THE FEDERAL LEVEL.—The nature of the inquiries concerning research preferred in the area of legislation was influenced by the action taken by the American Association of Junior Colleges at its annual meeting in January, favoring a single bill for general federal aid to education in preference to bills that would indicate the particular kind or level (for example, junior college) of education that should be aided. This action restricted the inquiry to the amount and plan of distribution of general federal aid. Table 1 makes it apparent that respondents were overwhelmingly favorable to having the Association carry on research concerning the amount and plan of distribution of such federal aid, as 152 of the total of 173 respondents voted affirmatively and only 17 negatively.

It was logical to ask respondents who favored research concerning the amount and plan of distribution

of federal aid whether this research should be carried on independently of other agencies or in co-operation with them. Responses to this question are also reported in Table 1. The proportionate distribution is

TABLE 1.—PREFERENCES ON RESEARCH IN FIELD OF LEGISLATION

<i>Questions and Answers</i>	<i>Number of Respondents</i>
Should the Association carry on research relating to amount and plan of distribution of general federal aid for education?	
Yes	152
No	17
Not voting	4
Total	173
Relation urged to projects of other agencies:	
Independent	13
In co-operation	137
Not voting after checking "Yes" above	2
Total	152
Should Association conduct research concerning desirable legislation at the state level?	
Yes	143
No	20
Not voting	10
Total	173

just as predominantly in favor of co-operation as is the vote favorable to carrying on research. If the vote is regarded as a mandate, the Association would hardly carry on investigation of the problem "on its own" but would do so only co-operatively.

AT THE STATE LEVEL.—As may also be seen in Table 1, respondents are largely favorable to carrying on research concerning desirable legislation at the state level, as 143 of a

total of 163 answering the question voted "Yes," while only 20 voted "No."

The schedule listed three phases of legislation at the state level and requested respondents to indicate the priority they would like to see assigned to investigation of these phases, by numbering the most important phase 1, the next most important 2, etc. Respondents were asked also to name other phases as

each phase, the percentage of first ranks assigned to each phase, and the combined percentage of first and second ranks assigned to each phase.

Looking first at the figures for "all junior colleges" in Table 2, one may note that the first and the third phases, "Regulation and accreditation" and "State aid," are practically on a par in esteem as needing investigation, with "Dis-

TABLE 2.—PRIORITY OF PHASES OF STATE LEGISLATION TO BE INVESTIGATED

PHASE AND GROUP OF JUNIOR COLLEGES	NUMBER VOTING RANK				PERCENTAGE VOTING	
	1	2	3	4	Rank 1	Ranks 1 and 2
Regulation and accreditation:						
All junior colleges	67	37	31	3	48.5	75.4
Private	45	9	3	0	78.9	94.7
Public	22	28	28	3	27.2	61.7
District organization:						
All junior colleges	8	65	51	4	6.3	57.0
Private	3	28	19	2	5.8	59.6
Public	5	37	32	2	6.6	55.3
State aid:						
All junior colleges	71	35	31	0	51.8	77.4
Private	11	15	24	0	22.0	52.0
Public	60	20	7	0	69.0	91.9

well as to rate their importance in comparison with the phases listed in the schedule. Compilation of the rankings on priority is presented in Table 2. Because the rankings by respondents from private and public institutions manifested a notable tendency to difference, the compilation reports the balloting for all respondents and for those representing these two main groups of junior colleges. The table shows the gross numbers of respondents assigning Ranks 1, 2, 3, and 4 to

strict organization" being placed mainly in the lower rankings. Rather striking differences of preference emerge for the first and the third phases for respondents from private and public institutions, with preference for the two phases in reverse order for the two groups. Respondents in private junior colleges much prefer research concerning regulation and accreditation to research concerning state aid, whereas respondents in public junior colleges markedly favor state

aid. It is interesting that no tendency to difference of preference emerges from these two groups of institutions for district organization, despite the fact that district organization can be accounted one of the most potent hindrances to further development of public units.

Among problems listed by respondents—none more than once—in compliance with the request to name "other phases," were the relation of the junior college to other

were qualifications of junior-college teachers, pre-service preparation of junior-college teachers, and in-service training. The number of problems submitted was limited to some extent by the fact that the work of the Committee on Teacher Preparation had been under way for some time antedating the organization of the Co-ordinating and Research Committee.

Results of the balloting on the three problems are assembled in Table 3. The problem of qualifica-

TABLE 3.—PRIORITY OF TEACHER-PREPARATION PROBLEMS TO BE INVESTIGATED

PROBLEM	NUMBER VOTING RANK				PERCENTAGE VOTING	
	1	2	3	4	Rank 1	Ranks 1 and 2
Qualifications	89	39	25	1	57.8	83.1
Pre-service preparation	31	83	39	1	20.1	74.0
In-service preparation	40	35	74	0	26.8	50.3

state-supported institutions, development of state programs which consider existing private and state-supported junior colleges, relations of junior and senior colleges, and legislation permitting integration of high school and junior college.

Problems of Teacher Preparation

Three problems in the area of junior-college teacher preparation were listed in the schedule, and respondents were asked to indicate priority in the same manner as was done for legislation at the state level. The three problems listed

tions easily leads in priority the other two problems listed, notwithstanding the fact that more published research is available on this problem than on the other two. Pre-service and in-service preparation are not far from being on a par, in the opinion of respondents, in the degree of urgency as problems for research.

Among problems listed in compliance with the request to name others were sources of supply of junior-college teachers, status of junior-college teacher-preparation programs, specific preparation for church-related and private junior colleges, finding instructors for ter-

minimal courses, and the internship for junior-college teachers. The first problem listed is the only one named twice; all others were proffered once only by respondents.

Administrative Problems

Five researches were submitted to respondents for the Committee on Administrative Problems. The full designations in the schedule of these proposed projects were:

A survey of present administrative

tices, with the purpose of suggesting improvements.

These designations are presented in abbreviated form in Table 4, together with the numbers of respondents assigning each rank, the percentages assigning Rank 1, and the percentages assigning Ranks 1 and 2. The balloting finds the first problem in the list standing out in priority above all others. The remaining four problems lag far behind in percentages of first ranks, although

TABLE 4.—PRIORITY OF ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS TO BE INVESTIGATED

PROBLEM	NUMBER VOTING RANK						PERCENTAGE VOTING	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	Rank 1	Ranks 1 and 2
Practices for improving instruction	98	39	15	5	4	0	60.9	85.1
Relationships among boards, administrators, etc.	18	24	28	31	33	2	13.2	30.9
Buildings and equipment	19	43	31	32	24	0	12.8	41.6
Finance and budgeting procedures	13	27	34	42	27	1	9.0	27.8
Public-relations techniques	20	40	39	22	30	0	13.2	39.7

practices for improving instruction, with the purpose of increasing the effectiveness of these practices.

An inquiry into existing relationships among junior-college governing boards, administrative officials, and faculties, with the aim of improving these relationships.

A survey of junior-college buildings and equipment in an attempt to determine criteria for adequate standards.

A study of current junior-college finance and budgeting procedures, and an analysis of instructional and other costs.

A survey of current junior-college public-relations techniques and prac-

all have considerable percentages of combined first and second ranks. Furthermore, these remaining problems are held by the respondents in approximately equal esteem as problems requiring research. An obvious inference from the evidence of the table is that the first problem (or project to investigate this problem) has present pre-eminence in the minds of junior-college administrators but that they likewise regard the other problems as pointing to projects deserving of the Association's concern.

Not many problems were listed by the respondents in compliance with the request to add others. Among the additions were the problems of the best type of organization for a junior college, the possibilities of integrating high school and junior college, and the selection of staff personnel. None of these was mentioned more than once.

It should be explained that the pressing problem of the "counseling of veterans" was omitted from this list because the Committee on Student Personnel Problems had previously projected an inquiry into practices in this particular area. Report from this inquiry will be made in article form by Dr. John L. Lounsbury, chairman of the com-

TABLE 5.—PRIORITY OF STUDENT PERSONNEL PROBLEMS TO BE INVESTIGATED

PROBLEM	NUMBER VOTING RANK						PERCENTAGE VOTING	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	Rank 1	Ranks 1 and 2
Organization and scope	59	22	35	13	13	11	38.6	52.9
Relations to high-school program:								
All junior colleges	27	23	18	26	19	21	20.1	37.3
Private	3	7	8	13	6	13	6.0	20.0
Public	24	16	10	13	13	8	28.6	47.6
Appraisal of personnel programs ..	22	35	29	28	24	7	15.2	39.3
Use of tests and schedules	13	31	30	26	29	18	8.8	29.9
Procedures in counseling	33	36	25	23	18	11	22.6	47.3
Success of transfers	17	22	22	20	19	35	12.6	28.9

Student Personnel Problems

The section of the schedule directed toward ascertaining priority of research to be carried on in the student personnel area listed six problems:

Organization and scope of the student personnel program in the junior college.

Relationships of junior-college and high-school student personnel programs.

Appraisal of junior-college student personnel programs.

Use of tests and schedules.

Procedures in counseling.

Success of transfers in higher institutions.

mittee, in a later issue of the *Junior College Journal*. Results of the balloting on the six problems are reported in Table 5.

From the distributions of rankings and the percentages of first rankings and of first and second rankings in the table, one may note that two problems have some pre-eminence in the opinions of the respondents. These problems are "Organization and scope" and "Procedures in counseling," with the first being given some precedence over the second. At the same time, all other problems listed are assigned prominence by considerable proportions of administrators,

so that not one of the problems may be actually assumed from the balloting to be unimportant.

The only problem listed for which there are significant differences in preference as between private and public junior colleges is "Relationships of junior-college and high-school student personnel programs." The distributions of ranks and percentages of highest ranks disclose that responses from public institutions rate this problem as much more important for investigation than do responses from private institutions. Explanation of this difference is to be found, in all likelihood, in the fact that the public units are usually parts of public-school systems, whereas the private junior-college situations less often include high-school years.

The request to the respondents to list "other problems" found little compliance in this section of the schedule. The infrequent addition of other problems may indicate that respondents regarded the problems listed as comprehensive.

Problems of Curriculum and Instruction

The field of curriculum and instruction, investigation of which is the concern of the Committee on Curriculum and Adult Education, is so wide in scope that the section of the schedule devoted to its inquiries was more extensive than that of other committees. The man-

ner of rating requested was also different from that for other sections. These inquiries included seven areas: general education, pre-professional education, terminal education, extended-day and adult education, improving instruction, evaluating curriculums, and extra-curriculum or extra-class programs. Under each of these areas certain "studies" were listed, and respondents were asked to check each study under one of the following characterizations: "Study greatly needed," "More information needed for the junior-college level," "Information already available," and "Too difficult to make."

The ballotings for each of the seven areas are presented in Table 6. Because the designations of the studies, or problems, are usually longer than those given in the table, it will be necessary to reproduce them in full in the interpretation that will be given of each area. Gross numbers only of respondents checking each of the characterizations for each study listed are reported in the table. In examining these frequencies, the reader will merely need to keep in mind that the total number of respondents was 173, although small proportions neglected to vote on some matters.

GENERAL EDUCATION. — Of the studies listed for the area of general education, Table 6 indicates that the one described in the schedule

under the title, "The extent to which the general educational background of junior-college students by eighty-seven respondents as "greatly needed." As many as sixty-three more respondents checked the

TABLE 6.—OPINIONS CONCERNING NEED OF CERTAIN RESEARCH STUDIES IN SEVEN AREAS OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE EDUCATION

AREA AND STUDY	NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS CHECKING			
	<i>Study Greatly Needed</i>	<i>More Information Needed</i>	<i>Information Already Available</i>	<i>Too Difficult To Make</i>
General education:				
Needs of youth	48	78	32	8
Needs of society	60	53	21	22
Most effective pattern	76	77	8	3
General educational background of students ...	87	63	5	4
Pre-professional education:				
Transfer of credits	87	58	13	1
Changing requirements	81	54	8	9
Terminal education:				
Organization and content of curriculums	66	42	26	2
Proper balance of vocational and general education	67	70	11	5
Ways of implementing Commission's report ...	39	53	7	1
Extended-day and adult education:				
Responsibility of junior college	52	58	18	4
Current examples	44	68	18	0
Techniques for organizing	54	62	15	0
Problem of co-ordination with other agencies ..	72	48	12	1
Improving instruction:				
Use of visual and other aids	44	57	43	0
Ability grouping	24	53	41	2
Size of class	24	56	49	0
Diagnosis and remedial teaching	63	62	14	2
Improving reading ability	62	57	28	1
Instruction in use of library	28	48	59	0
Teaching how to study	51	45	50	0
Measuring results of teaching	62	53	24	6
Evaluating curriculums:				
Best techniques of evaluating general-education curriculums	88	52	8	4
Best techniques of evaluating terminal-occupational curriculums	83	49	11	4
Condensed summary of studies and findings ...	74	53	5	2
Extra-curriculum programs:				
Responsibility of extra-class program for achieving goals	57	65	7	8
Specific use of programs to meet needs	62	81	6	1

should be considered in order to determine general education in the junior college and thus prevent undesirable overlapping," was checked

characterization "More information needed for the junior-college level." This study thus takes precedence within this area in the opin-

ions of administrators. The investigation titled "The most effective pattern of courses in general education" was a rather close second as a "study greatly needed." The two remaining studies, "The needs of youth for general education" and "The needs of *society* which constitute universal obligations on individuals" also share rather generously in the frequency with which administrators checked "Study greatly needed" and "More information needed." Consequently all four studies may be assumed to loom in importance in the opinions of administrators. For the two studies last named, considerable minorities believe that information is already available or that these studies are too difficult to make.

PRE-PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION.—Two studies only in the area of pre-professional education were presented for consideration: "The best way to meet the problems of transfer of credits" and "The best way to keep up with changing requirements of individual higher institutions." These studies should throw light on the traditional, even if not the newer, functions of the junior college. The results of the balloting, shown in Table 6, put them almost on an equality with the study rated highest in the area of general education.

TERMINAL EDUCATION.—Three studies in the area of terminal education were put up to the re-

spondents. As stated in full in the schedule, these studies were phrased:

Organization and content of terminal curriculums in specific subject fields.

The proper balance of vocational and general-education subjects in terminal-occupational curriculums.

Ways of implementing the study of terminal education just completed by the Commission on Terminal Education.

The gross numbers of respondents checking the first two characterizations place the problem of a proper balance of vocational and general education ahead of the other two, but with the organization and content of curriculums not far behind. The study of ways of implementing the Commission's report is not so greatly outdistanced by either of the other two as to warrant ignoring it in any program of research and service of the Association.

EXTENDED-DAY AND ADULT EDUCATION.—The full designations in the schedule of studies in the area of extended-day and adult education were:

The extent of the responsibility of the junior college for offering adult-education programs.

Current examples of adult and extended-day services.

Techniques for organizing such programs.

Problem of co-ordinating adult-education programs in the junior college with other agencies in the community.

As may be seen in Table 6, all four studies listed received approximately equal gross numbers of checkings in the first two categories, although some degree of priority emerges from consideration of the checkings given only to "Study greatly needed." Significant interrelationship of responsibility of the junior college and the problem of co-ordination may give these studies some precedence over the other two, but not to the degree that would warrant postponing at great length prosecution of studies in current examples and techniques for organizing.

IMPROVING INSTRUCTION.—The number of studies submitted to respondents for the Committee on Curriculum and Adult Education in the area of improving instruction was larger than the number for any other area. The eight studies listed are all to be found in Table 6, together with the numbers checking each problem for the four characterizations. Scrutiny of these numbers finds that studies of "Diagnosis and remedial teaching," "Improving reading ability," and "Measuring results of teaching" received approximately equal numbers of checkings of the first two characterizations and stand higher, in the opinion of administrators, than do the remaining five studies. Two others standing next in order are "Teaching how to study" and "Use of visual and other aids."

Again in this area, as in areas previously considered, no problem received a small enough gross number of checkings in the first two columns to warrant the committee's ignoring it in any well-considered program of research and service in the area of curriculum and instruction.

EVALUATING CURRICULUMS.—The three studies submitted for consideration in the area of evaluating curriculums were:

Best techniques of evaluating general-education curriculums.

Best techniques of evaluating terminal-occupational curriculums.

A condensed summary of studies and findings [in evaluation of curriculums].

The numbers of checkings of the first two characterizations show little difference of preference among the three studies, although the third study listed was rated not quite so high as the other two.

EXTRA-CURRICULUM PROGRAMS.—The last area to be canvassed for the Committee on Curriculum and Adult Education is that of extra-curriculum, or extra-class, programs. In this area, only two studies were submitted:

The extent of responsibility of the extra-class program for achieving general or occupational education goals.

Specific means of how institutions are using the extra-class program to meet needs.

These two problems may be seen to be about equally regarded, although somewhat less highly than

numerous studies in preceding areas.

In connection with each of the areas included in the broad domain of the Committee on Curriculum and Adult Education, request was made to respondents to list additional studies that they thought should be made. While no great number of studies, or problems, was named in connection with any one area, the total array and diversity are rather impressive. Space is not available for naming these studies in this report, but they are being brought together for consideration by the committee, so that it may have at hand this supplementation of the opinions yielded by the compilations of ratings presented in Table 6.

Utilizing the Results of the Poll

There would be little value in an attempt to summarize the results of this poll, which, as stated in one of the opening paragraphs, may be seen to be nearly comprehensive of the entire junior-college field. It is

more to the point to stress the significance of the outcomes for a program of research and services. On the basis of this inquiry, committees of the American Association of Junior Colleges are in a position to block out long-time programs of investigation and promotion that should aid substantially in attaining for the junior college its full stature in the family of educational and social institutions.

It is to just such a use that the results of the poll are being put. Such a utilization may be noted by anyone who takes the pains to check these results against the plans of the several committees as set forth by their chairmen in the reports of proceedings of the summer conference published in the September issue of the *Junior College Journal*. Such a check will find that the blueprints of plans for these committees took full cognizance of the preferences indicated by respondents to the schedule distributed in May to all junior colleges.

From the Executive Secretary's Desk

JESSE P. BOGUE

NEVER in man's long history have educational institutions had such opportunities thrust upon them as they have today. If John Snyder's Report of May 20 to the President is substantially correct, then this opportunity will persist for years to come. If, as the Report predicts, enrolment in higher education continues to climb until 1960, there is good reason to believe that a pattern of action with respect to higher education will have been set which will continue indefinitely.

Today, with government aid, multiplied thousands of young people will attend college who, under ordinary circumstances, never would or could have done so. It seems safe to assume that the children of these students will also be imbued with the spirit and desire for higher learning. The greater earning capacity for a larger number of citizens who are now in college and who will be in college will furnish a stronger financial foundation for the education of their children. Thus we are seeing, at this time, the raising of an entire generation to a higher level of culture and economic well-being.

The Secretary's Desk, with its many happy and far-flung contacts,

affords a wide sweeping view of educational movements. It is a strange and interesting experience following a rather long administration of close-up details of a single junior college. Now, one sees six hundred and more junior colleges on the move. Now, one sees scores of junior colleges emerging, not only in America, but in several other nations of the world. Now, one sees really a mass movement of college students.

In fact, education's day has come. In this movement lies a great danger, however. Many men and women are anxious that this generation shall not be sold short educationally. Too many inadequately prepared instructors; indeed, too few teachers of any kind; lack of physical equipment and buildings; overcrowded classes; and other similar factors contribute little to the peace of mind of those who see what is taking place. Adequate preparation had not been made and, under the circumstances of the past decade, probably could not have been made to meet the new demands. Who had foresight far reaching enough to see what would happen? One of the first big jolts came when, in the fall of 1945, the

pilot survey by the University of California showed that 20 per cent of California's veteran population was planning to enrol for college work of some type in the fall of 1946!

The whole situation gives point all the more keenly to the need for united and untiring work to bring about far-reaching reforms for educational support on a permanent basis. Temporary measures without policy or principle will not meet the situation. Is the average citizen, Mr. Taxpayer, the legislator, aware of the situation? Are educational leaders sufficiently aroused? Perhaps they are, but their awareness cannot be taken for granted.

For instance, from this Secretary's Desk can be seen citizens of a great city agitating for laws in their state to permit the creation of junior-college districts. In their state of 7,000,000 people—with a per capita income in 1945 of nearly \$1,300—there is not a single public junior college and no law to permit its citizens to organize one. It is now reported on high authority that between 20,000 and 24,000 high-school graduates of the state wished to enter college this fall. The tragic comment was, "The opportunities for them to go are getting less each day." According to a report from one of the same state's leading newspapers, just received, the comment of the state director of education regarding the junior college was as follows:

Since we have so many colleges that have been in existence for a long time with fine records, I am afraid a system of junior colleges might, in the next ten years, prove a serious detriment to the struggle of these institutions to remain active.

One wonders how aware even some leaders are of the facts in the case of the junior college. Here are two cities. They are almost equal in population and are comparable in area and in many other respects. Senior-college enrolment in one during normal times is 22,000; in the other, 27,000. Yet the latter city, with 27,000 senior-college students, also enrolls more than 12,000 junior-college students, and the former city fewer than 1,000! What is happening to the 11,000 potential junior-college students in the former city? What are at least 100,000 potential junior-college students doing in a state of 7,000,000 people? It would be valuable to make a comparison between two entire states on the basis of geography, climate, transportation, population, per capita income, etc., as well as between two cities. Studies made so far tend to show that the junior college actually helps the senior college, if the senior college is willing to be helped.

The President of one of America's really great universities is reported to have said a few weeks ago: "We don't need junior colleges in our state because we already have eighty-two degree-granting institutions."

But what about 160,000 to 200,000 veterans who have no desire to attend a senior college? But what about at least a million high-school graduates who want, and who are best qualified to take, well-rounded college courses of the two-year terminal type? But what about the 40 or 50 per cent of students who enter senior colleges only to drop out by the end of the second year with little or no better skill with which to make a living than they had when they entered? But what about evening classes and an honest adult-education program in hundreds of

our communities? Evidently the unique function of the junior college is not as yet well understood, even by many of the leaders in education.

The question, in its final analysis, is not one concerned with the existence of any institution, either junior or senior. The education of our young people for the role that they must play in today's and tomorrow's drama must be considered primary. The demand for more and better education is here to stay. Long-term planning to meet this demand should be started now.

Junior College World

WINIFRED R. LONG

Assistant to the Executive Secretary

FACILITIES GROW ONE-FIFTH DURING SUMMER

DURING the few short months of the summer of 1946, the junior colleges of the United States managed to increase their student capacity by approximately one-fifth—a task as difficult under present shortage conditions as it was vital in the face of the unprecedented numbers of veterans and high-school graduates clamoring for college entrance this fall. With splendid support from their communities, boards of education, and local citizens, almost every one of the country's 600 junior colleges managed to increase its facilities in some way, with the result that a spring total capacity of 332,700 students has risen to a fall total capacity of not less than 400,000 students. Since the federal government estimated in March that, without further action, 480,000 prospective college students would be unable to enrol this fall, the importance of this additional space to the 67,300 students it will accommodate can easily be recognized.

How was the increase achieved? A few examples from the many in the files of the Association may be

cited. Lamar College in Beaumont, Texas, organized branch campuses in two near-by cities where it was found that many prospective college students otherwise would face disappointment. Fairleigh Dickinson Junior College, New Jersey, with about 1,000 students this fall, 80 per cent of them veterans, secured 200 converted dwellings for veterans at Camp Shanks, New York. It then opened a branch college in Northvale, a town neighboring on the camp. These became the first two junior colleges in the country to meet the emergency through the creation of regular branch campuses.

Duluth Junior College, Minnesota, saw a February, 1946, enrolment of 329 students jump to a September enrolment of 900, including 600 veterans. It did not turn away a single qualified student, thanks to the action of the Duluth Board of Education in making available to it the former Franklin School building for exclusive use by the junior college. Formerly the institution had shared the quarters of one of the local high schools.

North Idaho Junior College acquired a near-by bus terminal and remodeled it into classrooms. It also arranged for the use of a neighboring theater for student assemblies. In addition, it acquired sufficient surplus property and a new Link trainer to enlarge its aviation-mechanics courses.

Bergen Junior College, New Jersey, with veterans, many of them married, making up 60 per cent of its fall applicants, secured from the government 26 apartments to erect on its campus for married veterans and two dormitories for single veterans. In addition, it secured 100 converted apartments at Camp Shanks, New York, for use by veterans, who attend the college on a commuter basis, with regular bus service between camp and college.

Yakima Valley Junior College, Washington, erected a prefabricated temporary annex to its permanent building. Multnomah College, Oregon, rented two near-by buildings, with approximately 30,000 square feet of floor space, for enlargement of its courses in aircraft mechanics, radio, automotive mechanics, and refrigeration. Jackson Junior College, Michigan, whose February enrolment of 268 students grew to about 500 this fall, including some 300 veterans, left its old quarters entirely to accommodate the increase. The Jackson Board of Education purchased for its exclusive use a commodious estate on the outskirts of the city.

NEW PRESIDENTS

HAROLD A. HOEGLUND has been elected to the presidency of Yakima Valley Junior College, Washington, to succeed Miss Elizabeth Prior, who has retired. Miss Prior had been president of the institution ever since its organization in 1928. Dr. Hoeglund has had extensive experience in education and holds the doctorate from George Peabody College for Teachers, Tennessee.

The Rev. W. A. Poehler is the new president of Concordia College, Minnesota, succeeding former president Martin Graebner.

DELANEY HONORED

PRESIDENT J. J. DELANEY of Schreiner Institute, Texas, has been honored by election to the presidency of the Junior College Division of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The Junior College Division of the Association includes 195 junior colleges in 12 southern states.

U.N. INSTITUTE AT FINCH

STUDENT representatives from twenty-nine colleges attended the first annual Intercollegiate Institute on the United Nations, held at Finch Junior College, New York, during the last week in June. Officials of the United Nations spoke, and the student delegates visited meetings of the United Nations Council, then in progress at Hunter College. The institute was sponsored by the American Association for the United Nations.

Recent Writings

Judging the New Books

LEONARD V. KOOS, *Integrating High School and College: The Six-Four-Four Plan at Work*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. viii + 208. \$3.00.

ABOUT thirty-five years ago the six-year elementary school, the three-year junior high school, and the three-year senior high school became the accepted organization for the nation's public schools. As the first three-year junior high schools were developed, an occasional voice could be heard asking whether the 6-3-3 plan was the best plan and whether educators should not consider a junior high school embracing Grades VII through X, and a junior college of Grades XI through XIV. With the passage of time, the 6-4-4 plan has steadily gained adherents until today it is indorsed and advocated by a formidable array of administrators and educational organizations.

The author of *Integrating High School and College* published his first extensive study of the junior high school in 1918, and since that time he has sought, through objective means, to determine the organization which American education should adopt. His latest book compares the 6-4-4 plan with other

forms of organization, notably the 8-2-4 and the 6-3-3-2 patterns. The manner in which the investigation was made, the data, and the conclusions drawn from them will be highly influential wherever the problem of grade organization is under consideration.

The author selected for intensive study 56 separate two-year junior colleges, 101 that were housed with high schools to a greater or less degree, and 10 four-year schools. These groups of schools were compared from evidence secured largely by firsthand contact. The points or issues on which comparisons were made were secured from the statements of administrators on why they preferred the 6-4-4 organization to other organizations. For example, among the twenty reasons offered by administrators for preferring the 6-4-4 plan were that it would encourage continuity of the curriculum, facilitate continuous guidance, and achieve an improved junior high school. Evidence was collected on the points listed by the administrators, and conclusions were drawn. Chapters iii through ix present issues, data, information, and conclusions. The final chapter summarizes the conclusions, pre-

sents obstacles to reorganization, and discusses the names which have been applied or should be applied to the units of the reorganized school.

The 6-4-4 plan is judged superior to the 6-3-3 because it offers more subjects than the 6-3-3 organization, guards against abrupt shifts in courses, provides enriched opportunities for participation in extra-curriculum activities, shows a trend toward a better teaching staff, has superior daily schedules, and provides better library and guidance facilities. The addition of Grade X makes necessary better equipped special rooms, while the older students have a beneficial influence on the younger.

The conclusion is that the four-year junior high school is a better unit than is the three-year school, which, in turn, holds an established superiority over corresponding grades of the older 8-4 pattern [p. 44].

The actual and theoretical improvement in lower divisions of the liberal arts colleges was the criterion of comparison of the curriculums of four-year and two-year junior colleges. The author points out the dissatisfaction with general education, which he takes to be well recognized and well grounded. His analysis shows that four-year junior colleges give more promise of effecting extensive reform in general education than do the two-year schools.

Continuity of guidance practices

in high school and junior college, the extent of democratization of junior-college education, and continuity in participation in student activities were other bases for comparing four-year and two-year institutions. It was assumed that effective guidance practices will assist in retaining students and in distributing them to the various courses and curriculums. The chief test applied, to determine the degree of democratization achieved by the types of institutions, was the proportions of graduates continuing their education into the second college year. In these areas the four-year junior college has the advantage.

The four-year unit shows an integration between the last high-school and the junior-college years; when the junior college is a separate unit, administrative and supervisory responsibility are carried by two groups. The four-year unit integrates guidance, supervision, and curriculum; in two-year schools the tendency is in the opposite direction. Junior colleges associated with high schools make a better showing than those completely separated from the high school.

The main conclusion is that the 6-4-4 plan is at once the most effective and the most economical means of bringing the full advantage of the junior high school and the junior college to the community [p. 187].

The most frequently mentioned

obstacles to introducing the 6-4-4 plan, according to the administrators solicited for opinion, are lack of suitable buildings and unfavorable attitudes of the community. Possible objections by higher institutions, attitudes of students, attitudes of teachers, and the high-school tradition, if frequency of mention is a criterion, play unimportant roles.

The book may not be favorably received by those inclined to question the evidence on which the conclusions rest. For example, is the offering of a larger number of courses in Grades VII, VIII, and

IX, when these years are a part of a four-year high school, a symptom of a better school? Is extensive participation in extra-curriculum activities better than more limited participation? Can one really be certain that records of courses completed proves anything?

A brief review does not permit discussion of the validity of data. In the reviewer's judgment, the book is an important contribution to educational literature and will be welcomed by school administrators.

AUBREY A. DOUGLASS

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
MODESTO, CALIFORNIA

* * *

PAUL E. KLEIN and RUTH E. MOFFITT, *Counseling Techniques in Adult Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946. Pp. xii + 186.

CARL R. ROGERS and JOHN L. WALLEN, *Counseling with Returned Servicemen*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946. Pp. viii + 160.

THESE two books are addressed to practical workers in the field of adult personnel work. Both are the product of experienced counselors. Both are concerned with personal and vocational counseling as well as with educational counseling. Both of them are short, sharply pointed manuals of procedure rather than comprehensive treatises undertak-

ing expositions of facts and principles in their fields.

Counseling Techniques in Adult Education develops the view that all workers in adult education, from principal to clerical staff, must give planned attention to the optimal guidance of adult students. Brief attention is given to the major tools of counseling, one of the aspects of guidance: interviewing, testing, case study, presenting information. More adequate are the sections applying the basic principle of individualizing adult education to the tasks of discovering needs, orienting applicants, enrolling students, aiding adults in the planning of study programs, and helping learners adjust to the demands of organ-

ized study. These sections abound in practical suggestions and examples of forms and procedures used in the San Diego adult schools. Particularly valuable is the chapter on "Educational Counseling." Here the problems characteristic of adult education are delineated, and positive activities for their resolution are suggested. Of interest to guidance workers is the insistence by Klein and Moffitt that educational planning must be done by the adult learner. The task of the counselor is to clarify goals, systematize constructive thinking, and encourage action.

As a practical school worker, this reviewer finds in this small volume many usable suggestions for implementing the commendable principles enunciated. As a student of clinical psychology, the reviewer finds less value in the work. The problems of personal counseling receive such sketchy treatment that one almost wishes the chapter had been omitted. There is likewise an over-simplification of the counselor-counselee relationship.

Counseling with Returned Servicemen does four things. The first six of the ten chapters in the book simplify the concept of nondirective counseling, earlier developed in Dr. Rogers' *Counseling and Psychotherapy* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1942), and reduce this principle to some specific counseling methods. The seventh and eighth chapters

apply the methods to educational, vocational, marital, and family counseling with veterans. The ninth chapter suggests some uses and methods for "first-aid" counseling through casual contacts. The tenth chapter gives five pencil-and-paper practice exercises for developing skill in counseling. An annotated bibliography of twenty-three titles is appended.

Nondirective counseling is defined as a "growth experience in which the counselor provides a situation that enables the client's striving toward maturity to proceed, free from the obstructions that have been hampering it" (p. 14). In order to provide this client-centered situation, the counselor must learn to provide "an atmosphere or climate that frees the client from the forces hindering his growth, and that makes possible self-initiated development" (p. 17). Basic to successful therapeutic use of permissive counseling is a genuine emotional sincerity in the procedures used. Primarily, this attitude flows from a "respect for the integrity" of the client.

In his early contacts with a counselor holding these attitudes and capable of restraining self-expression, the client comes to realize that the counseling situation is free and predictable. Through the open expression of feeling in this stable situation comes the gradual development of insight. With insight

into the real self comes the capacity to clarify the issues involved in specific problems and to take positive action in the direction of secure adjustment.

Junior-college counselors and veterans' advisers will profit from the applications of the client-centered approach in dealing with educational and vocational counseling. The authors' observation with respect to the handling of test scores and other information appear to this reviewer to be valid and useful.

Counseling with Returned Servicemen gives many brief excerpts from counseling situations. These case studies add interest as well as clarification to the principles of nondirective therapy. The volume should be highly useful to all college counselors, particularly to those who have followed the development of permissive counseling tech-

niques. Its ultimate value rests heavily on the validity of its systematic method. The volume suffers from brevity and over-simplification. Like *Counseling Techniques in Adult Education*, it is addressed to the non-documented practical worker. Armed with the motivation to counsel, definitions of problems, and two handbooks of methods, the lay counselor may feel empowered to go forth and rescue problem personalities. Yet if such a person avoids projection of the self into the client's problem, this reviewer is inclined to agree with Rogers and Wallen that even untrained counselors can do little damage. Careful study of these two volumes will help in their training. Wise counselors are sorely needed.

J. W. McDANIEL

SAN BERNARDINO VALLEY COLLEGE
SAN BERNARDINO, CALIFORNIA

Selected References

S. V. MARTORANA

ANDERSON, JOHN A. "Veterans in a Four-Year Junior College," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XXI (January, 1946), 205-10.

Discusses problems encountered in enrollments of veterans and describes ways in which these problems have been met at Pasadena Junior College. The absence of a hard and fast division between Grade XII and Grade XIII has been somewhat of an advantage to returning veterans because it has enabled them to complete their high-school work and at the same time to begin some college work with students of compa-

parable age. The author points out that veterans at the high-school level have the same general problems as do those at the college level. At Pasadena emphasis is placed on scheduling veterans in regular classes if previous records or the results of tests show them qualified. Tabular data on the choices of veterans indicate the need for close guidance. The four most frequent curriculum choices of veterans are engineering, general academic, business education, and technology. The author concludes: "Our returning veterans are given a rich experience. They are not too different from the regular run of students and most of them are making a happy adjustment to campus life. Their greater ma-

turity and earnestness is proving, in the main, a good influence on other students. The percentage of problem students among them is definitely lower than in the non-veteran enrolment" (p. 209). Anderson does not sanction the lowering of standards to meet veterans' problems, but he does advocate flexibility in rules and the by-passing of old established regulations if they become useless road blocks.

BECKLEY, DONALD K., and SMITH, LEO F. "Co-operative Education—The Graduates' Viewpoint," *School Review*, LIV (May, 1946), 299-301.

The report of a study recently completed at the Rochester Institute of Technology, an institution operating at the junior-college level. The study ascertained the opinions that graduates have of the co-operative work programs in which they participated. Returns were received from 155 graduates of the chemistry, electrical, mechanical, food administration, and retailing departments. Summarization of the opinions of both men and women graduates is given with respect to the preferred length of the work block and the types of objectives most efficiently achieved by the program.

The graduates' main suggestions for improving job co-ordination were: (1) Since the job is simply the means to further one's education, both the scientific and the technical courses should be thoroughly treated. (2) Industry is chiefly interested in getting a job done as cheaply and efficiently as possible. It would be advantageous to the student if the company for which he works would give him as wide and as varied experience as can be had in that company, but this ideal arrangement cannot be expected. (3) Classes in the evening, perhaps three a week, should be held during the working period to enable the student to ask questions on theory related to his job. (4) Employers should work more closely with the Institute. (5) Work situations should avoid using student-workers on high-speed assembly and production jobs.

Four major findings are reported: (1) Approximately half the students who had graduated from a co-operative curriculum felt that

there might have been closer co-ordination between the experiences which they had on the job and their major course in school. (2) About half the graduates would have preferred a longer work block, while the other half considered the four-week block satisfactory. (3) The graduates felt that some of the co-operating firms did not view them as potential supervisors in training and hence did not provide them with planned programs of work experience. (4) The great majority of students were convinced of the value of the co-operative experiences that they had received. A co-operative program was indicated to be preferable to a full-time program.

KELLY, FRED J. "Shall the Junior College Share in Smith-Hughes Funds?" *Higher Education*, II (December 15, 1945), 3-6.

Vocational education is held to be applicable to all levels of education. Further, the author points out the large band of borderline occupations which fall between the predominantly manipulative on the one hand and the predominantly professional on the other. "The question is: Shall this type of training, intermediate between 'vocational' and professional, come under the Smith-Hughes Act?" The history of the Smith-Hughes Act is reviewed, and there is some discussion of various interpretations of the phrase, "of less than college grade."

The article describes a bill, proposed to the Senate and sponsored by the American Vocational Association, which seeks "to provide vocational education and retraining" supplementary to the Smith-Hughes funds and would authorize an annual appropriation of \$97,500,000. In this bill appears the phrase "on the post-high-school level of less than college grade." On this the author comments: "This seems to mean obviously that the program is intended to include vocational education done in terminal courses in junior colleges, technical institutes, short intensive courses of whatever academic level, or any types of vocational courses which are not parts of a regular four-year degree curriculum" (p. 4).

Pro and con arguments are given relative to the question: "The vocational-education

program in most states is regarded properly as a part of the activities of the state department of education. Should the semiprofessional, technical, and vocational training program of the junior college become a part of this federally subsidized vocational-education program?" (P. 4.)

A four-point "suggested procedure" is outlined. (1) There seems to be no good reason for limiting federal funds to vocational courses of less than college grade. (2) There are some states in which the best interests of both programs—less than college grade and college grade—would be served if the state department of education as now constituted had responsibility for both. (3) In states with a single board of higher education which governs all publicly controlled colleges and universities, such a board might well be intrusted with the administration of federal funds for vocational education of college grade. In states where the land-grant college or the state university has "regarded the whole state as its campus," it would seem appropriate for the governing board of the college or university to administer the federal funds. (4) In some states, because of lack of any adequate agency existing for the purpose, a new agency would have to be created to assume responsibility for vocational education of college grade.

KOOS, LEONARD V. "The Junior College and District Organization," *School Review*, LIV (September, 1946), 389-400.

The author canvasses the problem of correct district organization of junior colleges in order "to sound a warning against ill-conceived developments" which may result from the unprecedented growth of the junior-college movement during postwar years. The article investigates the status of districts maintaining junior colleges. Evidence was secured from 167 local public junior colleges by a schedule sent in 1940-41 to administrative heads of all local public junior colleges listed in the *Junior College Directory* for 1940. Colleges responding were located in twenty-three states—all but two of the total number having local public junior colleges.

The kinds of districts and the types of organization found are summarized.

The author also discusses the advantages and disadvantages of having the boundaries of junior-college districts coterminous with those of underlying school units and of having the same boards of education as the lower school units. The responsibilities of administrative officers in charge of the junior college are reviewed in light of the likelihood of articulation of school units. Reasons for various types of administrative organizations are examined.

Desirable policy on district organization is analyzed with respect to the urgency of integration and the danger of its submergence in impending junior-college expansion, advantages accruing from integration of high-school and junior-college years, and the most frequent pattern of school organization which includes the local junior college. Past experience with separate high-school districts, with the resulting lack of articulation, duplication of school costs, and competition for funds, is noted as a warning against separate junior-college district organization. A fundamental approach to district organization involves three requisites. (1) It would require a policy of erecting districts under a single board of education responsible for all school levels. (2) Districts should be large enough in population or school enrolment to warrant the maintenance of junior-college work. (3) The board should delegate overhead direction of all schools in the system to one administrative head—the superintendent—to whom all principals and deans in charge of individual schools should be responsible.

LITTLEFIELD, HENRY W. "Connecticut Junior Colleges Serve Adult-Education Needs," *School and Society*, LXIII (January 26, 1946), 69-70.

Describes the methods by which the junior colleges of Connecticut are meeting the problems posed by adult-education demands. The writer points out that, though most people do not think of the junior college as an institution primarily serving the needs of adults in the community, an analysis of last year's enrolment in 584 institutions throughout the

country reveals that, of approximately 250,000 students enrolled in junior colleges, 162,000 (65 per cent) were special students or adults not enrolled for full-time attendance. The same situation holds true in Connecticut, where two out of every three students are registered in non-degree and short-term programs of adult-education nature.

In this article adult education is considered at three levels: elementary, intermediate, and higher. "It is with the higher level that junior-college adult education is particularly concerned. This level embraces several interest areas such as the vocational, avocational, personal adjustment (including the emotional), intellectual development (with consideration of a philosophy of life), and civic competence" (p. 69).

The extent to which Connecticut men and women are taking advantage of junior-college programs is indicated by a 225 per-cent increase in adult students between 1937 and 1941. During this same period the total enrolment increased 125 per cent. "It is becom-

ing more and more evident that, in many instances, the local junior college can and does meet the needs of a community better than absentee extension courses offered by a state university or other agency" (p. 70).

The article reports that in a study of post-secondary education made in Connecticut, it is estimated that between forty and fifty thousand course registrations will be made by adults at the junior-college level of part-time education. Approximately 50 per cent of this number (twenty-five thousand) must be cared for in two years after victory in World War II. It is further illustrated that the current rush in enrolments and concurrent problems require efficient use of plant and faculty and a high degree of co-operation with the community. The author suggests that junior colleges may be able to institute and maintain off-campus programs which will be operated and supervised by the junior college and will make use of the facilities offered by schools, churches, manufacturing plants, and the like.

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